

THE LITERARY WORLD.

A Journal of American and Foreign Literature, Science, and Art.

WHOLE No. 71.
VOL. III. No. 10.

NEW YORK, JUNE 10, 1848.

THREE DOLLARS
PER ANNUM.

C. F. HOFFMAN, EDITOR.

OFFICE 157 BROADWAY.

OSGOOD & CO. PUBLISHERS.

Sketches of American Life.

No. X.

LIFE IN A TENT.

A TENT is more frequently pitched in imagination than in practice; I underwent the sober realities of life for some months within a real one, and can still regard it with affection: no work of man is more picturesque or calls up a longer line of associations. Abraham, in the first days of our race, sat in his tent door in the heat of the day on the plains of Judea, and through all the ages since the tent has been the symbol of pastoral life, of a wandering existence, of a sojourn in the wilderness, or of war. Other structures for shelter have changed, but the tent remains the same; the shepherds of old watched their flocks at night with tents by their side such as are now pitched in Spain and in Syria, in Arabia and America.

In the sunny skies of Florida, where rain seldom falls during more than half the year, a tent is not an unpleasant shelter; during the day it becomes excessively hot within, but you are out under the live oaks it is built under, and a veil of a dozen folds of canvas could not more effectually exclude the sunbeams than does the curtaining of moss that is inwoven into the foliage of these trees. At night if you are not sick, or ailing, or if your ague fit does not attack you at that time, and if you have become accustomed to the howls, hoots, and screams of wild beasts that have dispersed the stillness of the day, you sleep gloriously. If your tent is well pitched you do not dread its overthrow by any wind that blows, and the trees that looked threatening or top-heavy in its neighborhood you have carefully cut down. You have spent the hours of darkness till bedtime round a watch-fire kindled at the door of the tent; you enter for the night, carefully tie down and together the flaps, grope about for your lucifers for some moments and suddenly the interior is illuminated. Then the most happy hours of the twenty-four are to come; you "lie down in your loneliness," with your candle on the head of a barrel at proper focal distance, at some one of your library of books, consisting of from three to four volumes, that you always carry with you. Let one of these be Charles Lamb; the second, Milton; the third, Boswell's Johnson—and you will find, if you are not reduced to a perfect Johnsonian heathenism in point of taste, that you will read all three for the love of them.

Some one in writing about the music of nature,—White, I think,—remarks that the owl hoots in B flat. I have neither seen nor heard any reason to doubt that; but if so, the howl of the wolf must be in A major. Probably the nearest approach most of my readers have made to the hearing of this sound is in reading of it in Campbell, or in thinking upon it as the note of an animal long since extinct or occasionally seen in menageries, but not known to inhabit any civilized portion of the earth's surface. Wolves exist, however, in great numbers in Florida; the note of even one of these is as

fierce as ten furies; it is prolonged and reverberated through the woods like a shout heard beneath a dome; there is no analysing it, you are uncertain whether one or twenty are at this hymn to the moon.

You have pitched your tent for the night near some basin-like spring and in an unknown part of the woods, unconscious whether three times your number of savages are not within rifle shot, or whether the light from your camp-fires may not be shedding its brilliance upon you merely as on an illuminated target. Matters go on well, however, and at ten o'clock you find yourself abed, that is wrapped in your blanket or great-coat, with the same clothes on you, you have worn during the day; and either under your tent-folds or on the soft sand, that is no bad approach to a mattress. Looking up at the open sky, or as much of it as is seen through the pine tops high overhead, you engage in astronomical contemplations until sleep steals upon you; Venus is not within the view, and Sirius, Saturn, and Mars are reigning triumphant. The owls, chuck-wills-widows, poor wills, night hawks, night herons, and mocking-birds, are engaged in a glorious concert around you; and centring your thoughts on the notes of the mocking-bird, like the sounds of a sweet flute heard amid discordant music, you are at length hushed to sleep by the strain.

If you have never heard a wolf howl, your slumbers will be disturbed at about 12 o'clock, by a general Indian attack; hundreds of the savages have ranged themselves in single ranks around the whole camp; they have set up a whoop to which all other battle cries are but as small voices; the sound is not from one quarter, it comes from above, beneath, and around you—it is continuous like the prolonged wail of a whole tribe of Amazons with their offspring snatched from them and bearing down on you for vengeance sake; you start up and in an instant are fully awake, but you are rather disappointed to find all things so quiet around you. The friendly Indian guide, who has got up in the middle of the night to eat, has not so much as raised his head from his venison stew; the sentry paces along the narrow path he has worn in the sand, the watch-fire glistens on his bright bayonet pointed aloft, the moon is riding near her highest noon, and midnight finds you undisturbed in your Florida camp. You would have sworn whoever did raise the halloo were properly aligned and dressed (in a military sense), that some huge drum major stepped to the front and at one wave of his wand, every voice was raised aloft; one sound did not follow another, it was a fearful concerted yell. Yet now all is still again, save some mournful and solitary reverberation that is prolonged through the woods until the echoes outmaster the key notes. But a disturbed sleeper like yourself comes to your relief, and with an interjectional sentence, of which *wolves* is the last term, puts your mind at rest as regards any compromise you might happen to make of yourself in the morning by placing savages instead.

R. S. H.

St. Louis, Mo.

Reviews.

The History of Ten Years, 1830—1840, or France under Louis Philippe. By Louis Blanc. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard, 1848.

History of the French Revolution of 1789. By Louis Blanc. Same Publishers.

WHEN we divest the great and stirring events now transpiring throughout civilized Europe of those secondary characteristics, which, although as inseparably allied to every great change in the affairs of nations as shade is to sunshine, are yet, from their immediate bearings upon the interests and the passions of mankind, too apt to warp men's judgments—when, discarding alike our sympathies and our prejudices, we contemplate these movements as they shall appear from the heights of history, and consider them merely, so to speak, as the equinoctial storm leading out of one political climate into another—they assume an exalted character calculated at once to evince the futility of the efforts on the part of those at the head of affairs to suppress their development, and to exemplify the Supreme Wisdom which makes causes the most remote work out their effects imperceptibly, but surely, through the march of centuries.

The Revolution of Paris—the immediate incitement to all the others—has been variously attributed, according as men love to trace more or less remote causes, to the accidental discharge of a gun, to the suppression of a banquet, to the opening speech of the King, to the influence of the Pope's liberal measures, to the principles yet alive of the old revolution of '89, and lastly to the spirit of our own revolution of '76. These causes are all severally assigned, and all correctly; but even these in their turn are effects, not causes—some of them apparently trifling, but important from the presence of other elements: mere sparks by themselves, but dangerous because the materials around were combustible. The original cause or causes must be sought for at a remoter period in the history of the past. For centuries, two great opposite principles had been developing themselves—aristocracy and democracy; the rights of the few against the rights of the many; despotism against republicanism. These hostile powers were working in presence of each other. Great interests, great abilities were enlisted on either side. Both together could not flourish. Sooner or later, therefore, the struggle was to come. Circumstances could only hasten or retard the period of collision, not totally avert it. Accident may have determined the date of the birth of the French republic, but for the seeds of its existence and for a proper analysis of the "spirit of the age," we must search far back into the past.

We must study the history of Europe from remote centuries and observe how all its principal movements from the middle ages down, in spite of their apparent confusion, converge towards one common centre—the amelioration of man's condition. And the better to appre-

ciate even these movements, we must carry ourselves back to the Roman empire, and watch how conquest led to affluence, affluence to corruption, and corruption to indolence, impoverishment, national degradation; and, finally, to the invasion and total overthrow of the empire. We must follow the barbarians overrunning Europe and carrying with them endless warfare, anarchy, and ignorance; respecting no principle but religion, and leaving no conservative institution standing but the Church—until, finally, the confused elements merge into a system, and feudalism arises out of the chaos. Then observe how feudalism tends to extend the wealth and importance of the Church while ignorance converts religion into superstition, and superstition induces the undertaking of the Crusades—gigantic expeditions, to which, though apparently fruitless, Europe finds itself indebted for the liberalization of ideas—the extension of commerce, and hence a general impetus to navigation—the decline of feudalism, by the extinction of noble families—the introduction of jurisprudence, by the revival of the Justinian Code, brought back from Constantinople—and the creation of a taste for letters and sciences, which gives a new direction to men's minds, and imparts to them that activity which results in the discoveries of printing and the mariner's compass. The latter discovery, in connexion with the impulse given to navigation, brings about at a later day the discovery of America. And the former, in connexion with the abuses of the Church (the natural result of that irresponsible power which the Crusades had so much contributed to extend), leads to the Reformation.

Thus, it is seen, the Crusades, themselves the offspring of feudalism and superstition, exerted an indirect influence in the discovery of printing and America, and in the accomplishment of the Reformation: three agents which may be looked upon as the propagator, the asylum, and the ally of liberal doctrines. But the Crusades had effected more than this; they had contributed, at a much earlier period, to the institution of the *Communes* in France, whereby the people or *bourgeoisie* were for the first time recognised and constituted into a distinct class. This was brought about by the impoverished nobles selling, for the purpose of joining the Crusaders, the right of *bourgeoisie* to their vassals, who then formed themselves into *Communes*: these, though not the first of the *Communes*, tended greatly to strengthen their body, and to hasten the creation of the *Tiers-Etat*.

The institution of the *Communes* in France, then, on the one side, and the granting of the *Magna Charta* in England on the other, are the first dawns of that amelioration in the condition of the masses, and of that resistance to arbitrary power which constituted the groundwork of modern democracy.*

These elements of liberty, however, owing to the limited intelligence of the times, received no great development until the results of printing and the Reformation began to manifest themselves. Then, the benefits of printing, from the wide circulation it gave to the views of the controversialists, were made known to the world. The doctrine of freedom of conscience found hosts of partisans, and along with it, the doctrine of freedom of opinion and freedom of action; that is, civil liberty naturally insinuated itself into men's minds. New sects arose and were persecuted. These persecutions led to the emigration of

the Puritans and Huguenots, and thus laid the foundation of the American colonies; the first instance where a new country owed its existence to a class of men who were not unprincipled adventurers in pursuit of gain, but virtuous, intelligent, influential members of society, who left their homes and their countries to maintain a principle. They came imbued with the liberal views which, springing from the *Magna Charta*, began in those days to prevail somewhat extensively in the English mind. They brought with them few prejudices and a sound knowledge of the rights of man; two conditions which, at a later day, effected the Revolution of '76, and established the American Republic on its present firm basis.

Meanwhile the elements of a revolution were fermenting in France under the combined influence of the feudal system, many of the worst features of which still existed, and of liberal doctrines which, under the guidance of such master minds as Rousseau and Voltaire, had been gradually working their way down into all classes of society. To these causes must be added the powerful impetus they received from the successful experiment of a republic then going on in America. New principles were beginning to be discussed, and the people were awakening to new rights, and vindicating them with wonderful intelligence. And as these doctrines were inseparably leagued with the most important interests, social and political, their discussion excited to the highest pitch all the most dangerous passions that can disturb society. The movement of the people was onward; whilst the aristocracy, heeding nothing, stood still. A collision became inevitable. The contest at last began; and the people knew, or fancied they knew, that they must either conquer or relapse into a condition worse than that from which they had emerged.

The nobles invoked foreign aid, and the nation, struggling between armies without and traitors within, felt that its energies could not be successfully directed against the former until the latter had been exterminated.

"*Le corps social est malade—il faut le saigner.*" —Proscriptions were decreed, passion hurried many into diabolical excesses, suspicion invaded every bosom, and cruelties of the blackest kind were perpetrated. Private grievances sought redress under the cloak of patriotism; and the innocent and guilty, the weak and the powerful, were all swept down the bloody stream together.

The country was saved, but the cause of liberty was held responsible for the excesses which had been perpetrated in its name—and its influence to a great degree was lost. But something of its spirit still remained, and the doctrines which the French armies scattered over the countries through which they passed, lived and flourished among the people after those armies themselves had ceased to be. By these sanguinary measures, the French Republic was established—but as the public mind was not yet ripe for so sudden a change, anarchy spread over the land. In this state, men grew weary of blood, and were disposed to welcome a centralizing power under any shape, even a despotic one, provided it were only strong enough to maintain tranquillity and restore confidence. This disposition, combined with gratitude for his military services, favored Napoleon's ambition—and thus the Republic without resistance passed under the imperial sway.

During the stirring years that followed, the levying of troops and the waging of wars

engrossed the nation's attention. Then came the restoration—the restoration of a prince whose pretensions to the crown had caused his country's blood to flow for twenty-five years, and who was finally carried back to the throne of his fathers upon the bayonets of his country's deadliest foes. The rule of such a prince, as a matter of course, could not but prove hateful to a high-spirited nation, and was calculated above all others to revive that love of liberty which under more immediate necessities had during the few years previous been allowed to slumber. We accordingly find it under the reign of his successor kindling through the heart of the whole people and only awaiting a favorable opportunity to rise to the surface. In 1830 the occasion offered, and the result is known.

It was not an act of fickleness, as has often been charged to the French,—not a mere change for the sake of change—but on the contrary a consistent love of liberty, long-cherished, and re-expressing itself at the earliest moment that it could reasonably be done. The people, even at that time, expected a republic—but, owing to La Fayette's counsels, a king was again accepted—a crowned republican, as it was thought he would be.

But ere long the people found their hopes deceived. The king, instead of progressing in the liberal cause, began speedily to relapse into the ways of his predecessors. These disappointments, favored by the existence of a general peace and (at the commencement of his reign) the comparative liberty of the press, turned the public mind not only of France but of all Europe, Germany and Italy in particular, to the discussion of the inalienable rights of man. The press was daily teeming with political treatises and essays, and politics were discussed not only in newspapers and clubs, but in almost every class of work published—from the grave history down to the sparkling feuilleton.

Under these influences had the public intelligence been progressing when Pope Pius IX. ascended the pontifical throne, and startled all men with the novel spectacle of liberal views emanating from the most conservative institution in the world. The high-toned spirit of liberality that distinguished his administration, while it roused the admiration of all generous minds, made the discussion of human rights and the amelioration of the lower classes the leading fashion of the day. This disposition, in conjunction with the countenanced absorption of Cracow, the discouragement of the liberal movement in Switzerland, the authorized intervention of Austria in Italy, the anti-liberal tendency of the Spanish marriages, the exasperations created by the prosecutions of the press, and above all the deep-seated conviction that the sovereign was ruling for his family and not for the nation—all contributed to give republican doctrines, veiling themselves under the name of *Reform*, a wide-spreading popularity.

In this state of affairs the Reform Banquets began. The public mind, at first excited by opposition, became irritated. The royal speech increased the feeling—and the suppression of the banquet brought matters to a crisis.

The vacillating course pursued by Government effected, without bloodshed, a consummation which greater firmness might have deferred, or at least rendered more difficult of attainment. That such was not the case, the world, though not the fallen, have reason to rejoice.

And now, for the third time, the people had

* For an extended elucidation of the above views see Guizot's "*Civilisation Européenne*."

overthrown their rulers, in the hope of bettering their condition. A republic was unanimously determined upon, and all the necessary qualities for such a state of society were at once displayed by the masses. Moderation, order, submission to authority, perfect freedom of discussion, and an intelligent appreciation of just sentiments (the trifling disturbances in the departments, compared to the whole population, and to similar disturbances elsewhere on less important occasions, being too trifling to notice) distinguished the people in all their public transactions. Even the plans of MM. Albert and Louis Blanc, though disorganizing in their results, were undertaken in a spirit of fairness and philanthropy deserving of approbation.

As Mr. Bulwer says of St. Denis (the saint who took a walk with his head under his arm), his was a case in which the first step was half the journey. The same, we think, may be affirmed of the Republic: for, a nation that can pass through two months without seriously disturbing public order, uncontrolled by any show of authority, gives the strongest hopes for the stability of its future course. As to those who base their evil forebodings upon the former Revolution, they deserve as much credit as the Englishman, who, arriving at midnight at an inn, kept by a red-haired shrew, wrote in his journal: "In France all the women are termagants and have red hair." One was as fair a criterion as the other.

The rapidity with which the movement at Paris was responded to by the other capitals proves how well prepared all civilized Europe was for such a change; and shows, too, as we said before, how vain are the efforts on the part of governments to suppress the development of popular doctrines. For, if we have succeeded in explaining our views, we have shown that the spirit of liberty now pervading Europe, is not the momentary ebullition of a political epidemic, but rather an advancing irresistible tide, resulting from the accumulated pressure of ages—taking its source in the Magna Charta of England, and the Institution of the *Bourgeoisie* in France, and progressively expanding under the influence of printing and the Reformation, until it establishes the Commonwealth in England and sends off a rich tributary to America—afterwards suppressed in England, but leaving traces of its passage behind—then rising up suddenly in France with fierce impetuosity, against the resisting prejudices of feudalism, and sweeping them all off in the Revolution of 1789; then, again lost to sight for a number of years, yet pursuing, notwithstanding, a subterranean course, which acquires in depth what it loses in breadth—and finally, after several ineffectual attempts to rise to the surface, re-appearing in February, 1848, purified by its travels, and carrying before it, like a straw on the whirlwind, the powerful throne of France, and all the notions of despotism which had so long surrounded the sceptres of neighboring kingdoms. And, its course is still onward, and will continue so to be until it has carried away the vestiges of monarchy still extant in southern and middle Europe, shaken the throne of the Scythian Cæsars, and overrun the now quiet, but not unapprehensive land "upon whose domains there is no setting sun."

In regard to the financial embarrassments and minor disturbances which have arisen since February, it must be remembered that our own revolution, in common with every other violent change, however blessed the consequences might be, was accompanied by similar trials—and that of the evils referred

to, the French Revolution has occasioned only a portion. It has precipitated and concentrated, rather than created, most of these disasters. Many of them were destined to break over France as soon as the inflated condition of the finances had reached the point of reaction.

But even if all these evils did flow from the Revolution, they are but temporary in their nature, perhaps more so than most people think; whilst the benefits are secured, come what may, to generations for all time to come. By this we do not mean that the republic is safe beyond all possibility of change, but that even in case of a counter-movement there are some principles established, some inalienable rights secured, from which there cannot possibly be any retrogression.

Future generations will look back to that event with lasting emotions of gratitude, and when they consider that so great a change was effected in a few hours, when they recall the courageous energy and patriotism of the Provisional Government, and the heroic traits of disinterestedness on the part of the people, the few hundred names that figure on the Bankrupt List will detract as little from their gratifications, as the memory of the bare feet of our Continental army detracts from ours.

The extent of the blessings flowing from the Revolution will depend much upon the question of peace or war. With peace secured, the standing armies of Europe might be disbanded, and thus, from one to two millions of men converted from consumers into producers—making a two-fold gain to the tax-payers—first, by the enormous reduction in the amount of government expenditures—and secondly, by the increase of taxable property resulting from the industry of this large body of men. The armies might be disbanded—because for internal affairs they would be superseded by the National Guards—and for foreign wars, volunteers with a small nucleus of regulars and well educated officers to direct them, would answer all desirable purposes, as the first French Revolution and our own exploits with Mexico conclusively show.

But should a general war occur, the benefits resulting from these movements might temporarily be lost sight of, and their development seriously retarded. One thing, however, would be certain—that as the wars would not be for dynasties, they could not lead to another Restoration.

But there is one great evil which strikes us as threatening to result from war to all the European powers alike.

A general war cannot be prosecuted without effecting enormous loans. Now these loans could only be obtained on the most unquestionable security. And as the interest on the old and new loans might increase the taxes beyond the country's utmost endurance, a preference would have to be extended to the newer ones—a proceeding which would involve a virtual repudiation of the older ones.

Or else, if the people consented to these burdens, the wealthy classes, taking advantage of the vastly increased facilities of communication, might, by degrees, emigrate to more favoured parts of the world in such multitudes as to leave their country without the wealth or intelligence (for intelligence generally follows in the wake of wealth) requisite to repel the attacks of the North—and thus lead once more to an invasion of the Barbarians.

Those who think that patriotism would guard against such an occurrence must reflect

that, as the equality of man to man, and of woman to man, has tended to well nigh extinguish the ancient virtues of loyalty and chivalry, so may the equality of nation to nation, now so rapidly advancing, tend to weaken the ties of patriotism.

They must also bear in mind that the advancing principles of Free Trade, and the increasing facilities for exchange, will, ere long, enable the new world to compete with the old in its own markets for every article of consumption, whether the produce of industry or the soil. Such was very much the case with the Roman empire, when the free admission of African and Sicilian grain drove the agricultural population, always the life-blood of a nation, into the towns, and converted the cultivated districts into pasture grounds.

We propose in a future number to treat more particularly the subject indicated by the two recent works of Louis Blanc, which are placed at the head of this article.

The Military Heroes of the United States. By Charles J. Peterson. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 550. Philadelphia, W. A. Leavy, 1848.

It is refreshing and encouraging, in these times when histories of the Revolution and the later wars, biographies of military men and sketches of battles, are so numerous and generously accorded to the anxious public, to meet a work which demands and will receive more than a passing glance. It seems as though every writer for the last few months had felt impelled to make an addition to the literature of the country in the shape of a military book. The consequence is, that by perusing them all—so various have been the tastes, prejudices, and information of the authors—the reader is in a state of complete mystification; and so little attention has been given to correctness in the minutiae of affairs, that he is almost ready to believe nothing from being required to believe so much, or to reconcile statements so utterly at variance. Unless, as is very probable and much to be hoped, the great mass of these publications sink into oblivion as rapidly as the spirit that evoked them, there will be no end to the difficulty hereafter to arise from the romantic description of actual occurrences, and often from the discrepancies that mar their pages. It is time the idea that a history can be written and printed in a month, should be exploded. The writer of a responsible history should be a *responsible man*—of a strong nerve—with an iron pen. He must plod months, perhaps years, through fields into which common men would not go, or which they would traverse with the greatest speed. There can be for him no railroads, or steam engines, or magnetic telegraphs. With his scrip in one hand, and lantern in the other, he must creep warily and slowly, gathering a broken musket here, a scabbardless sword there; a dismantled cannon on one side, and an odd ball on the other; wading through trenches and climbing dilapidated ramparts, until not a rood is unexplored. Then, imbued with the spirit of the past, and with ability to put his finger on proofs of his statements, he may set about addressing the present, and, perhaps, future ages.

The impression which the present author makes on the mind of his readers, is one of perfect confidence. His style is free and perspicuous, always honest and emphatical. Instead of seizing on the merely interesting points of any scene, and elaborating them at the cost of others quite as important, Mr. Peterson seems to sit down, with his facts in one hand and his pen in the other, to tell his story

in an unvarnished manner, swerving neither to the right nor the left. If a bit of romance is to come in, very well; if not, he manufactures none for the occasion. He has not written a book of poetry, nor a sentimental novel, but a straightforward history. When, for instance, you have reached the close of his narrative of the revolution, in the first volume, you feel satisfied that you have read all that is necessary to give you an intelligible and just knowledge of that struggle, its causes, and its consequences. About a third of the volume consists of this history of the war. The remainder is composed of biographies of its principal heroes, prepared with care, and presenting the same internal evidences of research.

In the second volume, we have a History of the War of 1812, followed by biographies, and also a History of the War with Mexico, in like manner succeeded by sketches of the commanders who have most distinguished themselves. The whole forms a work to be referred to whenever reference is necessary to establish points in dispute. The work was in preparation long before the recent military epidemic seized our writers, and the author, instead of hurrying to forestall the others, kept on in the course he had sketched for himself, without wavering in his researches, or fearing an overstock in the market.

The book is an admirable specimen of typography. It is embellished with about thirty steel, and nearly four hundred wood engravings, of the highest order, and many of them exceedingly appropriate to the text.

As a specimen of the author's style, we quote from the second volume, the following description of

THE BATTLE OF MOLINO DEL REY.

"For this desperate task the first division of regulars, reinforced by Cadwalader's brigade, and a detachment of artillery and dragoons, were selected, and the whole placed under command of General Worth. The force of the assailants numbered three thousand one hundred and fifty-four, of which less than three thousand were infantry, and one hundred artillerymen, the latter having three small field pieces, and two twenty-four pounders. The number of the enemy in the lines, or within sustaining distance, was over ten thousand. His left rested upon and occupied Molino del Rey; his right Casa de Mata. Half way between these two stone buildings, was his field battery, and on each side of this were ranged lines of infantry. The right was composed of fifteen hundred regulars, under General Perez; the left was made up of the National Guards, and was led by General Leon. The intermediate lines, with strong bodies in the rear, were under the command of Santa Anna. The Mexicans were confident of victory, for they knew the Americans to be ignorant of the vast strength of Casa de Mata. On the other hand, Worth was unconscious of the almost impregnable position of the enemy; but resolute, in any event, to succeed. He made his dispositions for the attack with admirable skill, dividing his little force into three columns of assault. The right column, composed of Garland's brigade, and accompanied by two pieces of light artillery under Captain Drum, was to assail Molino del Rey, and was to advance to the attack, covered by the fire of the two twenty-four pounders, placed for this purpose, under Captain Huger, on the ridge descending from Tacubaya. The centre column, containing five hundred picked men, led by Major Wright, of the eighth, was to pierce the Mexican centre, and capture the field battery there. The left column was commanded by Colonel McIntosh, and consisted of the second brigade, sustained by Duncan's battery; its object was to watch the enemy's left, and support Major Wright, or assail Casa de Mata, as circumstances might require. Cadwalader's brigade was held in reserve, in a position

between McIntosh and Huger's battery. Sumner's dragoons were stationed on the extreme left. Such were the dispositions made by Worth, on the night of the 7th, and when the men sank to slumber, it was with the expectation of a bloody morrow. But their worst anticipations fell short of the reality.

"At 3, A.M., on the 8th, the columns were put in motion, and in an hour and a half, had taken up their respective positions. The cold grey of early dawn had just begun to show itself faintly in the east, when a shot from Huger's battery went whistling over the heads of the troops, and crashing against the sides of Molino del Rey, announced that the battle was commenced. It was not long before the walls were crumbling under the immense battering balls. No sooner did Worth perceive this, than he gave the order for Wright to advance. The storming party instantly rushed forward, led by Captain Mason of the engineers, and Lieutenant Foster. A tremendous fire of artillery greeted them, but in the face of this they pressed on, gained the battery, cut down the men, and were already wheeling the captured guns on the foe, when the latter, perceiving how few were the numbers of the assailants, turned, and poured in from the whole line simultaneous volleys of musketry. It was like the explosion of some gigantic mine. The entire space of four hundred yards between the two forts was a blaze of fire; and when it had passed, scarcely a third of the assaulting column remained on their feet. With wild shouts the Mexicans now poured to the attack, and the Americans were driven from their guns, and hurled bleeding back from the lines. The day, for a moment, seemed lost. At this perilous crisis, Cadwalader, with the right wing of his brigade, accompanied by the light battalion left to cover Huger's battery, arrived to the rescue. The ground beneath was strewn with dead, as thickly as a harvest field with grain; while, through the smoke, the shattered column of Wright was seen recoiling. The roar of the artillery; the rattling of small arms; the plunging of round shot from Chapultepec, and the tumultuous cheers that rose from the Mexicans, who considered themselves already victors, did not, for a second, check the advance of the gallant reserves. They came into action, on the contrary, as resolutely as on parade, the eleventh, under Colonel Graham, leading.

"Never did American soldiers, brave as they have ever been, acquit themselves so heroically as on this day. The duty of the eleventh was to charge the battery, and, at the word of their leader, they raised a hurrah and plunged into the smoke. At every step they passed the dead body of some fellow soldier who had perished in the preceding assault. At every step a comrade fell from the ranks. But the stern voice of their leader, crying, 'close up—forward!' continually urged them on. The batteries in front vomited grape and canister incessantly. Hundreds were already down, and others were falling fast; yet they did not falter, but quickened their pace to a run, their leader waving his sword at their head. He had already received six wounds, and at this moment a ball struck him in the breast, and he fell from his saddle: 'forward, my men,' he cried, with his dying breath; 'my word is always forward!' There was a pause at this terrible sight; but then the cry of revenge arose, and, with a shout, heard over all the uproar of the conflict, they rushed upon the enemy's guns. The Mexicans gave way in consternation, appalled by the tremendous huzza. Lieutenant Tiffin, springing on one of the captured pieces, waved his sword for his men to follow; but at this instant a withering fire was opened from some neighboring house-tops that overlooked the battery, and he was forced back. But the check was only for a moment. On came the Americans, cheering and firing: they swept over the lines; they scattered the dismayed foe; they were masters of that part of the field. But they had purchased the victory with the loss of their best officers, and of more than half their men.

"While this terrible struggle had been going on in the centre, one only less sanguinary had been transacting at the right. Here Garland's brigade, sustained by Drum's artillery, assaulted the mill, and, after a desperate contest, drove the Mexicans from this position, and compelled them to take refuge under the guns of Chapultepec. Drum's light battery, and the two heavier pieces of Huger, were now harnessed, and went thundering down the declivity, until they reached the ground lately occupied by the enemy, when, unlimbering, they opened a destructive fire on the fugitives. The Mexicans, breaking their ranks, fled in consternation, the stronger treading down the weaker. The captured cannon were also turned on the flying crowd. Mercy, for that day, had deserted every bosom. The Mexicans, earlier in the combat, had bayoneted the wounded Americans left behind at Wright's repulse, and now, the victors, burning to revenge the slaughter of their comrades, spared none. The air was filled with the cries of the fugitives, the shrieks of the wounded, the hissing of the grape, and the boom of the guns from Chapultepec, rising like trumpet blasts, at intervals in the fight.

"On the American left, meantime, the wave of battle surged wildly to and fro. The attack had been commenced in this quarter by Colonel McIntosh, at the head of the second brigade, who, sustained by the fire of Duncan's battery, moved rapidly down the slope to assault Casa Mata. The advancing column soon coming within the sweep of Duncan's fire, masked his battery, on which he was compelled to cease. The enemy now opened a terrific discharge of small arms. The brigade, nevertheless, pushed forward. Fiercer and fiercer gusts of fire swept the intervening space, scorching up the front of McIntosh's column as if it had been grass upon a prairie. One-fourth of the men had already fallen, and yet the foot of Casa Mata was not attained. McIntosh himself was severely wounded. Lieutenant-Colonel Scott, pressing on, and refusing to avail himself of cover, was shot dead. 'Stoop behind the wall, they are going to fire,' said one of his officers. 'Martin Scott never stooped,' was the proud reply. At that instant a ball entered his breast; he fell back, and his cap over his heart, expired. The column had now reached the edge of the ditch. But here, to their consternation, they discovered that Casa Mata, instead of being only a common field work, was an old Spanish citadel of stone, surrounded with bastioned intrenchments and impassable ditches. The loss of so many officers, the terrible slaughter in the ranks, and this unexpected obstacle in front, proved too much even for this gallant brigade; it fell into disorder, and retreated hastily to the left of Duncan's battery. As the Americans turned and fled, the Mexicans stepped out on the walls, and delivered a parting volley, while the air rang with the clang of their triumphal music.

"But defeat had met the enemy in another quarter. McIntosh had scarcely moved to the attack, when an immense body of infantry and cavalry was suddenly seen advancing around the end of Casa Mata, opposite to our extreme left, with the obvious intention to charge and cut to pieces the storming party. This was the moment when Duncan had ceased firing in consequence of being masked by McIntosh's column; and he seized the occasion to gallop, with his battery, to the furthest left. As the Mexican cavalry came thundering down, several thousand strong, directly in his front, he opened with grape and canister. At the second round the squadrons broke and fled in disorder. Major Sumner calling on his command to follow, charged the disordered foe, and completed the triumph. Sumner's way led him right in front of Casa Mata, and aware of his danger, he swept by like a whirlwind; but such was the intensity of the enemy's fire, that, though under it but ten seconds, every third saddle in his troop was emptied. Once beyond this peril, he burst like a thunderbolt on the lancers. The enemy, in

this quarter, was soon driven beyond reach. But at Casa Mata he was still invulnerable. It was just at this moment that the assault of McIntosh had been repulsed, and, as Duncan turned from witnessing the flight of the lancers, he heard the rejoicings of the foe in the citadel, and saw the third brigade recoiling in confusion. Instantly his guns were turned upon Casa Mata again, whose walls rattled to the shot as if to hail. The enemy's triumph was speedily at an end. Looking over the plain he beheld the Mexican battalions everywhere in flight, and, knowing the citadel to be no longer tenable, he hurried to evacuate it. The Americans were now masters of the field. The conflict had lasted two hours, and been the most sanguinary of the war. One-third of Worth's command were either killed or wounded; and two of his best regiments were almost totally destroyed. The enemy had lost three thousand men, among them General Leon, the bravest of their leaders. In obedience to his orders, Worth proceeded to destroy the cannon moulds found in the mill, and to blow up Casa Mata; after which, with eight hundred prisoners, he returned to Tacubaya.

"Such was the terrible battle of Molino del Rey."

The American Manual; containing a Brief Outline of the Origin and Progress of Political Power, and the Laws of Nations; a Commentary on the Constitution of the United States of North America; and a Lucid Exposition of the Duties and Responsibilities of Voters, Jurors, and Civil Magistrates; with Questions, Definitions, and Marginal Exercises, &c., &c. Adapted to the use of Schools, Academies, and the Public. By J. B. Burleigh, A.M. Philadelphia: Grigg, Elliot & Co. 12mo. pp. 372. 1848.

It is a subject both of wonder and thankfulness, that notwithstanding all the assaults upon its integrity, the constant written and spoken violations of its orthography and syntax, and the extraordinary liberties taken with its etymology and prosody, the English language has not followed the fate of that which was spoken before the Flood. That it has not done so is no fault of the etymologists, lexicographers, grammarians, and phonographers, who meet the youthful student on the threshold of the schoolroom, and complacently lead him into a region of mist and fog from the effects of which his intellectual constitution seldom wholly recovers.

As to the phonographers we have long ceased to regard them as belonging to that division of the army of progress which marches in the advance; they fraternize rather with the sutlers and camp-followers, whose primitive orthography seems to possess in their eyes a peculiar fascination. Hence we are not inclined to apprehend that the danger in this quarter will be of long continuance.

The etymologists must plead guilty to many fanciful derivations, some of which may lead astray, others merely amuse. On the whole we believe them to be the least dangerous of all.

The lexicographers are at issue on the question of orthography, and consequently no two men in the country spell alike. They have volunteered alterations in the established spelling of some hundreds of words, adhering to etymology and analogy according as it suited their humors, and striving to improve the English language after the fashion of the ingenious gentleman, who lately proposed to convert the Hudson river into a canal by removing the inequalities of its banks.

Our present business, however, is with that department of the art of torturing the English language which relates to the selection and

arrangement of words in a sentence. In our younger days, as soon as a boy had begun dimly to comprehend the mysteries of conjugations and syntax, and could put six words together without committing an equal number of blunders, it was the custom (and it may still prevail, for aught that we know) to exercise his ingenuity in the correction of sentences purposely made ungrammatical, till he became more conversant with infractions than with examples of the rules of syntax. (Spelling-books have also, we are informed, been constructed after this fashion, "with quotations from the best poets, and the choicest sentences from our great writers," all spelt wrong. But we were fortunate in being spared a course of "Pinnock's Exercises in False Spelling.") On the same principle, certain modern writers of fiction initiate the public into the most revolting details of vice and crime, under the plea of stimulating their appreciation of virtue. Having attained sufficient proficiency in the art of extracting the finest cucumbers from the fewest sunbeams, the pupil was supposed to be an adept in the grammatical construction of sentences; and it was considered advisable to add to his accomplishments by giving him a deeper insight into the meanings of words than was attainable by an occasional reference to his dictionary. For this purpose a book was provided, full of useful maxims, pithy reflections, agreeable anecdotes, &c., and redolent of the most unexceptionable grammar, but having one or more *lacune* in every sentence, to be filled up according to the requirements of the context. These exercises were intended to impart a wonderful command of language, and an acute perception of verbal distinctions; and when the youthful student could read these puzzles with tolerable facility, he was deemed to have attained the art of speaking, reading, writing, or doing anything else to the English language, with propriety.

We have thought the foregoing remarks not inappropriate as an introduction to a notice of a work which announces that "many and important improvements have been made of late years in the system of instruction;" and we will now commence an examination of "The American Manual," in order to ascertain the superior advantages enjoyed by the young of the present day.

The object of this volume is fully set forth in the title, which we have given nearly entire, and in the following brief Preface:—

"This volume is designed to promote a knowledge of the nature and necessity of political wisdom—the paramount importance of the Constitution of the United States, and the momentous duties and responsibilities of Voters, Jurors, and Civil Magistrates. If it shall tend in the smallest degree to incite an interest in the Philosophy of our own Language,—to foster a devotion to the Union,—awaken a conscientiousness,—a desire for excellence among the rising generation, and imbue their minds with fidelity to the social and political institutions of the Republic, the object of the author will be realized."

The appearance of the pages is peculiar. In the right-hand margin opposite every line of the text, is printed in small type a definition or synonyme of some word which has occurred in that line, which word is indicated by a mark of reference; and the pupil, in reading the passage, may at discretion substitute the definition or synonyme in the margin for the word labelled in the text. In the latter portion of the book, both margins are occupied with columns of synonymes, corresponding to additional textual references, thus giving considerable

latitude of choice to the pupil. At the foot of every page are questions, partly relating to the subject-matter, and partly to verbal distinctions. All these questions are answered, and their difficulties "elucidated" in the Appendix, which consists of forty or fifty pages of very small type.

The Contents are:—Preliminary Remarks to Educators; Origin of Government; Nature of Liberty; Law of Nations; Origin of the American Constitution; The Declaration of Rights; The Declaration of Independence; The Constitution of the United States; Commentary on the Constitution; Duties and Responsibilities of Voters, Jurors, and Civil Magistrates; and Statistical Tables.

This is certainly an ample list of subjects to be discussed within the compass of one volume; if it is done well so much the greater the merit. But this point we shall not attempt to decide, as it is not clear which of the various readings of which every page admits, the author may be inclined to adopt as peculiarly his own. Nor is it material to our purpose. We are willing to suppose that the sentiments are all right, if we could only get at them, and that they do not "conflict with the political opinions of the patriotic citizens of any party in our land,"—no mean achievement, by the way, in a book containing commentaries upon and ad libitum amendments to the constitution; and only to be surpassed by the extraordinary union formed between philology and patriotism, conscientiousness (?) and devotion to the Union, a desire for excellence and fidelity to the Republic. Ingenious the master who weaves, industrious the pupil who unravels this unquestionably "strong," but not exactly "homogeneous cord!" In its compendious comprehensiveness the book reminds us of those useful articles of furniture—the delight of frugal but not squeamish housewives—which may be converted into a sofa, bedstead, bureau, or dining-table, as occasion requires; or it may be likened to the mantle of an Eastern conjurer, from beneath which fig-trees or brambles, turkeys or tigers, are produced at the pleasure of the spectator.

Not wishing, however, to be deemed capricious, we will strain a point, and admit that the "devotion" may be fostered, the "conscientiousness" awakened, the minds of the young "imbued with fidelity," &c., by the means indicated above. But while expressing our hope that these several operations may be found as easy as they are desirable, we entertain strong apprehensions that if any interest is "incited" (excited?) in the philosophy of language, the knowledge resulting will be in an inverse ratio; and we shall confine our remaining comments to this branch of the subject.

Copious as the English language confessedly is, it contains few superfluous words, and consequently a *bonâ fide* synonyme is scarcely to be found. What are called dictionaries of synonymes merely exhibit groups of words having a strong family resemblance, but each possessing a physiognomy of its own; and the advantage of these dictionaries is that they frequently assist an inexperienced writer to the particular phraseology which will best convey his meaning. It is impossible to explain the exact import of one word by another; we must resort to a circumlocution—a definition. Now it may be generally presumed that an author takes some pains to embody his thoughts in the most appropriate language; and that any alteration or substitution would materially impair the force, beauty, and significance of a composition. This is more particularly the case in works of any pretension; in

important public documents; in poetry (where the very letters of which the words are composed are carefully scrutinized):—those words only are employed which convey the precise meaning. None can be added, none can be omitted, none can be interchanged, without detriment to the sense. And here is the grand source of error in the book under review. Notwithstanding the occasional questions at the foot of the page respecting distinctions of meaning, notwithstanding the "elucidations of the key," the pupil being allowed at discretion to omit the marked words in the text, and substitute for them their so-called synonyms in the margin, will inevitably learn to consider them as interchangeable both here and anywhere else where he may find them, lose all sense of the niceties of signification, and become the inheritor of a style characterized by tautology, inaccuracy, and bombast.

This must inevitably be the result, even if the "marginal references" were the most appropriate that could be selected. But when they assume so much latitude as in the present work, and when political documents of the very highest importance are converted into shuttlecocks for every wondering urchin in a village school, it strikes us that his devotion to the Union will be stunted in place of being fostered, and that if in after years he should ever think of the social and political institutions of the Republic, it will only be with the purpose of providing them with some practical synonyme.

Let us take a sample or two of the readings. Turning to the Declaration of Independence, we find that in the following sentences the words in parentheses may be substituted for the words immediately preceding them. The felicity of the *synonymes* is conspicuous.

"We hold these truths (tenets) to be self-evident; that all men are created (made) equal; that they are endowed (invested) by their Creator, with certain unalienable (not transferable) rights; that among these, are life, liberty, and the pursuit (quest) of happiness. That, to secure (confirm) these rights governments are instituted (established) among men, deriving their just powers from the consent (concurrence) of the governed; that, whenever any form (system) of government becomes destructive of (ruinous to) these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish (abrogate) it, and to institute (establish) a new government, laying its foundation (base) on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form (order), as to them shall seem most likely to effect (secure) their safety and happiness (welfare)."

In another place we find the author expatiating on the beauties of his system, and by the aid of the "marginal references" we read the following choice sentence.

"It is not probable that every one should fully comprehend the diversified beauties of the plan here exhibited, and the happy result it must have in attaching *amplitude* and *accuracy* to the *manner* of such as may be taught by it, without *prior knowledge* and *use*."

Who would imagine that "amplitude of manner" meant a copious command of language? But this is one of the things, we suppose, that are not to be fully comprehended without "prior knowledge." That it may be known and used before it is comprehended is an advantage possessed by few systems of instruction.

We add a few brief examples of the "marginal references," which, we sincerely hope, will never make their appearance in the margins of any of the classics of the language.

"Each" (either of two things) is substi-

tuted for "every" (separative of many), pp. 9, 132, 187, et al.; "halls of Congress" are called "seats," p. 174, and "seat" of government is called "site," p. 181, and being thus used in the same chapter and on the same subject, the intelligent pupil will naturally infer that "hall" and "site" are synonymous. We notice on p. 119, "representative" explained by "delegate," and on p. 122, "senators" defined by "delegates" also; "qualifications" by "legal power;" and "apportioned" by "distributed." Further on, p. 170, "respect" is interpreted by "regard;" on p. 171, "impeachment" by "misdemeanor," and just below, "impeached" by "arraigned." On p. 119, "direct taxes" are defined as "taxes assessed on real estate;" and on p. 264, we are informed that "*agents of the innocent*" are States' Attorneys! We long sought in vain for an explanation of this last remarkable association of ideas, but at length we hit upon a clue—the author is a "member of the Baltimore bar."

And all this is done to "impart an accurate knowledge of the nature and necessity of political wisdom!" The knowledge appears to be so securely locked up, that the "complete key" will not be able to release it. As to the command of language, we think that what has preceded sufficiently indicates its inevitable effect upon the pupil; and our opinion receives strong confirmation from observing the faults of the author's style, which are just what we anticipated, and of which we could furnish examples more than enough; but we content ourselves with referring the reader to the title-page and preface for specimens of misapplication, tautology, and pleonasm. Such a work as this is no improvement, though undoubtedly written with the best intentions. We throw no imputation on the motives of the author; we have no doubt that he is earnest in the discharge of the duties of his laborious profession. But we consider his plan as a step in the wrong direction, as infinitely worse than the former system. As to the patriotism, and all that, every sensible boy who may fortuitously grow up under the shadow of this book, will shudder at the bare mention; and as to the philology, the experiment can only result in perplexity to the scholar and confusion to the teacher.

Poetry.

(THE following little poem is from a forthcoming volume by George S. Burleigh, a young, self-educated New England farmer, whose family has already produced one poet, in the person of William H. Burleigh, whose literary talents raised him long ago to the Editorship of a leading Connecticut Journal.)

LIGHT AND SHADE.

WHEN I behold the cruel hate, and strife
Of man, embattled against glorious Truth,
With a blind malice and a fierce untruth
Damming the pulses of the Better Life
Back on the heart, I turn, with sorrow rife,
To sweet-voiced Nature, whose perpetual youth
Is Hope and Promise: and the flower, that
showeth
Like love to all that in its circle groweth,
Maketh me pray that I, too, were a flower,
That I might feel the sweet breath of its love,
And like it, serve my God from hour to hour;
And even when crushed by careless steps above,
Could yield the spoiler all my fragrant living
In the most odorous boon of a divine forgiv-
ing.

To the clear waters of the stream I look,
And see them joyous, as they overleap
All clogs that fall, to hold them from the
deep—

Then say I, "O that I were made a brook

Which ever leapeth from its pebbly nook,
And none from its unbounded goal can keep;
So might I bless the valleys, as I'd sweep
Still to one point through many a sinuous
crook."

I view the stars, and sigh to be a star,
That o'er the reach of human hate or fear
I might roll on, God-moved, with none to jar
The eternal music of my golden sphere;
There is no thing of God's I would not be,
Rather than this repulsed and spirit-fettered
me.

Then Trust awakes, triumphant over ill,
Teaching the Soul that in herself is power
To make his pure love odorous as a flower,
Though spurned, exhaling all its sweetness still,
While her whole life is crystal as the rill;
And the far stars that on our midnight shower
Marvellous light, undimmed though tempests
lower,
Shall with less glory the serene arch fill,
Than her divine thoughts may, her boundless
sphere;
And anthems nobler than creation's dawn
Heard rung from all the golden harps of
morn,
Can the high soul pour, jubilant and clear:
There is no thing of God's that I *would* be,
Other than this *pure* self he would create
of me.

LAMENT FOR THE ACQUINOSHIONI, OR UNITED PEOPLE.

AT Onondaga burned the sacred fire
A thousand winters, with unwasting blaze;
In guarding it son emulated sire,
And far abroad were flung its dazzling rays:
Followed were happy years by evil days;
Blue eyed and pale, came children of the Dawn
Tall spires on site of bark-built town to raise;
Change graves of beauty to a naked lawn,
And whirl their chariot wheels where led the
doe her fawn.

Where are the mighty?—morning finds them
not!
I call—and echo gives response alone;
The fiery bolt of Ruin hath been shot—
The blow is struck—the winds of death have
blown—
Cold are their hearths—their altars overthrown!
For them with smoking venison the board,
Reward of toilsome chase, no more will groan:
Sharper than hatchet proved the Conqueror's
sword,
And blood, in fruitless strife, like water they
outpoured.

The spotted Demon of contagion came
Ere the scared bird of peace could find a nest,
And vanished Tribes like summer grass when
flame
Reddens the level prairies of the west;
Or wasting dew-drops when the rocky crest
Of this enchanted hill is tipped with gold;
And ere the Genii of the wild-wood drest
With flowers and moss the grave-mound's hal-
lowed mould,
Before the ringing axe went down the forest old.

Oh! where is Garangüa—Sachem wise!—
Who was the father of his people?—where
King Hendrick—Cay-en-guacto?—who replies?
And, Skenandoah, was thy silver hair
Brought to the dust in sorrow and despair
By pale oppressors, though thy bow was strung
To guard their *Thirteen Fires*?—they did not
spare
E'en thee, old Chieftain! and thy tuneful
tongue
The death-dirge of thy race, in measured Ca-
dence, sung.

The-an-de-ne-a-ya* of the martial brow,
Gy-ant-wa †—Hon-ne-ya-wus, ‡ where are
they?

Sa-gay-ye-wat-hah§! is he silent now,
Will listening throngs no more his voice obey?

* Brant. † Corn planter. ‡ Farmer's Brother.
§ Red Jacket.

Like visions have the mighty passed away :
 Their tears descend in raindrops, and their
 sighs
 Are heard in wailing winds when evening grey
 Shadows the landscape, and their mournful
 eyes
 Glean in the misty light of moon illumined
 skies.

Gone are my tribesmen, and another race,
 Born of the foam, disclose with plough and
 spade
 Secrets of battle-field and burial place ;
 And hunting grounds, once dark with pleasant
 shade,
 Bask in the golden light ;—but I have made
 A pilgrimage from far to look once more
 On scenes through which in childhood's hour I
 strayed ;
 Though robbed of might my limbs—my locks
 all hoar,
 And on this holy mount mourn for the days of
 yore.

Our house is broken open at both ends,
 Though deep were set the posts, its timber
 strong ;
 From ruthless foes and traitors, masked as friends,
 Tutored to sing a false, but pleasant song,
 The Seneca and Mohawk guarded long
 Its blood-stained doors ;—the former faced the
 sun
 In his decline ;—the latter watched a throng
 Clouding the eastern hills—their tasks are
 done !
 A game for life was played, the prize the white
 man won.

Around me soon will bloom unfading flowers,
 Ye glorious Spirit-Islands of the just !
 No fatal axe will hew away your bowers,
 Or lay the green-robed forest king in dust ;—
 Far from the spoiler's fury, and his lust
 Of boundless power, will I my fathers meet,
 Tiaras wearing never dimmed by rust ;
 And they, while airs waft music passing sweet,
 To blest abodes will guide my silver-sandalled
 feet.

W. H. C. HOSMER.

The Fine Arts.

MESSRS. GOUPIL, VIBERT & CO.'S EXHIBITION.

THROUGH the liberal arrangements of these gentlemen, who are well known to the public as the conductors of one of the most extensive print publishing houses in Europe, we have at last an opportunity of admiring some of the finest productions of modern art ; one of which, at least, is without doubt the finest of its class, and that class the very highest in art, that has ever been brought to this country—a picture that in intellectual beauty and expression is equal to any of the works of former ages, when Art was at the summit of its glory. We briefly alluded, a few weeks since, to the very laudable intention of these gentlemen to establish a gallery in this city, in which they would be able to place a continual succession of the finest specimens of modern French Art, and to identify themselves in some measure with Art in this country, by engraving some of the best works of our own painters. These intentions they have already put into execution by opening their present gallery in the Lafarge Building, and by transmitting to Paris a picture by Mr. Mount, "The Force of Music," which will be engraved and distributed to the subscribers of the gallery during the present year. It remains only for the public to decide whether the experiment shall be successful, and by a proper appreciation of its merits, to secure to itself a permanent benefit.

Heretofore we have had no opportunity to judge for ourselves of the real excellences or defects of the French School of Art ; and taking our opinions at second hand from the English writers on the subject, in whom, perhaps, national prejudice may have somewhat warped true judgment, it must be acknowledged we have given it but a secondary place in our estimation. Nor have we been fully aware of the entire radical change that French Art has undergone since the days of David, Girodet, and Gros, but have been content to confound with the cold, classic, and correct conventionalities of those painters, all that has been produced since their time. But those who think for themselves on the subject, will readily perceive from the engravings we have had from the works of Scheffer, Delaroche, and Vernet, that the present school is in every respect, save that of correct drawing, diametrically opposite, and so much so, that it often falls into an extreme quite as removed from pure taste in the other direction. French pictures are no longer filled with figures like antique statues, possessing only the attributes of a classical humanity, more allied to stone than flesh ; hard, inflexible, and impassible ; calling forth in the mind no sentiment of beauty, no feeling of sublimity, no recognition of truth. The day has gone by of those pictures, which brought forth not the criticism of the soul, but of the carpenter's rule and compasses, and made Art merely a physical, almost an exact science ; in which certain combinations of expressions, reduced almost to the level of fixed rules and certain proportions which antiquity had settled as the ultimatum of beauty and sublimity, were considered competent to fulfil all the purposes of Art, and produce pictures which should be as immortal as the statues they had set up as their models for imitation. It was but natural that such a school, founded on so hollow a basis and so false in regard to the true feelings of our nature, should soon give way before the proper spirit of the age, and like the attempt to engrave on the society of the period at which it existed, the manner and costume of the antique republics, should soon come to be regarded as an extravagance proceeding from an unnatural state. Since the time of Gericault, who was the first to break through the bonds that had been thrown about Art, the French School has rapidly advanced till it has attained a position, which, standing next to the English school in color, and to the German in severity, unites the peculiar merits of both, and surpasses both in general excellence.

Amongst those who have regenerated art in France, Scheffer stands foremost. His works are singularly powerful, not from any display of drawing and color, or fine composition, or picturesque effect, but from the depth of their poetical feeling, and their touching and pathetic sentiments, that appeal to the tenderest emotions and purest affections of the heart. The admiration which they command is not of that kind which is lavished upon voluptuous expression or convention in taste and style ; but it is the result of the operation of one mind upon another. Mere admiration, in fact, is the last feeling that possesses us in looking at his pictures ; we forget to admire in the intensity of our other emotions ; we look not at a picture merely, a cunning device of pigment and canvas,—it is a powerful sermon, an emphatic lesson, a noble poem, that reaches the soul through the medium of the eye. Of the profoundly argumentative spirit and lofty aim of the works of Scheffer, we take the following from a foreign writer, better able to judge

than ourselves, from his closer intimacy with the painter and his productions :—

"It is the admirable purpose of this famous painter to search for, and select motives, characterized by a simple sublimity that would in other hands be utterly untractable—to describe moral incident so vague and undefinable as to seem beyond the compass of art—to paint, in short, that which so many have essayed with a measure of success so limited—that is the immaterial—and as a talisman to endow the canvas with a mastery over the soul. And this lofty purpose is sufficiently evident in the works consulted by Scheffer for his subject matter. He has realized from Goethe, Margaret and Mignon, and King Thulé—from Dante, Francesca da Rimini, and Beatrice, a pure and lustrous form already made out in a picture just begun—an impalpable image which Dante and Scheffer alone have been gifted with the power of seeing. His 'Christ the Consoler' is the most beautiful passage he has taken from Scripture, and the Confession of St. Augustine his happiest example from 'The Fathers.' These are the forms which his art illustrates—and with Rembrandt he might say, but with deeper feeling—'These are my antiques.' It is not necessary to attempt to show how much of delicately constituted mind—how much of profound sensibility and of ardent imagination is necessary to range up to intimate communion with such men and such books—to become sensible of their images and most subtle creations. It can be sufficiently understood what qualities of mind are necessary to appropriate to painting those grand poetical fictions—to transfigure upon canvas those divine visions of genius. In the works of M. Scheffer there is apparent a restless desire of knowledge and search after the means of art, and a religious labor of execution is not less manifest. It would be profitable to examine what the artist has done, and hence to estimate his precise value—to consider his manner—his transformations—the two powerful influences by which in turn he has acknowledged himself moved—that is to say color and drawing—and to observe the progressive and complete fusion of the two, and it would be deeply interesting to pursue this obstinate struggle between form and idea—and these successive attempts at the attainment of powerful expressions and grand execution. Independently of his striking originalities, it is his imagination—depth of soul—pathetic sentiment, and infinite moral tenderness which will place Scheffer in the rank of the first painters of his time—or of any time."

The present exhibition of Messrs. Goupil & Co. contains a picture by this artist, which may be considered as an admirable example of his powers. It is the "Dead Christ and the Holy Women," in which it is not too much to say that the painter has equalled the sublimity of the Gospel, and has expressed upon the canvas that for which no language save that of inspiration has an utterance. It is impossible to criticise such a work as this by the ordinary rules of Art ; it has been called cold and dull in color, but even here the very negation of positive color is an additional charm in the picture, perfectly consonant with the scene of painfully intense expression, of agony almost superhuman, which it depicts. To us it is faultless as a work of Art, and will bear the sternest tests of criticism. This much for its superficial qualities ; of the picture itself, by which we mean its sentiments, its expression and soul, we cannot speak, and do it justice. It must be seen and felt. The painting has a great mission to perform here ; it will be a fine lesson to our artists, and its exhibition cannot but result in a wide and more just appreciation of the high merits of the French School.

Of the other pictures in the gallery we shall speak in our next number.

Miscellany.

LORD ROSSE'S TELESCOPE.

At a late meeting of the Dublin Royal Academy, Dr. Robinson gave an account of the present condition of Lord Rosse's telescope. Dr. Robinson found that the speculum (whose figure, as he had formerly stated, was not quite perfect), as well as a duplicate one, had been polished by the workmen; and as he apprehended no difficulty in the process, it was repeated. An unexpected difficulty, however, occurred, which made much delay, till Lord Rosse discovered the cause. The success of the operation requires that it be performed at the temperature 55° . In winter this must be obtained by artificial heat,—which, however, increases the dryness of the air, so that the polishing material cannot be kept on the speculum. In this case the surface is untrue, and gives a confused image. This was verified by the hygrometer, and remedied by a jet of steam so regulated as to keep the air saturated with moisture. The result was immediate; and at the first trial the speculum acted so well that it was unnecessary to try any further experiments. Three additions had been made to the telescope:—1. The movement in right ascension is given from the ground by machinery intended to be connected with a clock movement which is in progress. 2. To obviate the difficulty of finding objects, an eye-piece of large field and peculiar construction is connected with a slide, so that it can be replaced by the usual one in an instant. It magnifies 208 times, and employs nearly four feet of the speculum, the same as Herschel's 40-feet; thus giving the power of trying what that instrument might show. 3. The micrometer is peculiar,—a plate of parallel glass, with a position circle attached. Light admitted at its edge cannot escape at the parallel surfaces, except they be scratched, and a scale of equal parts engraved on one of them with a diamond—luminous in a field absolutely black. The exceedingly unfavorable state of the weather subsequently prevented much from being done; in fact, there was but one good night, the 11th ult. In the moon he observed the large flat bottom of the crater covered with fragments, and satisfied himself that one of the bright stripes, which have been often discussed, had no visible elevation above the general surface. In the belts of Jupiter, streaks like those of Pyrrhus's cloud were seen; and the fading of their brown color towards the edge is evidence that they are seen through a considerable and imperfectly transparent atmosphere. A similar shade in the polar regions, where little cloud is to be expected, seems to indicate that the brighter bands are cloudy regions, and the more dusky show the body of the planet. Several nebulae were examined, and, as formerly, all were resolved. That of Orion is most remarkable. Even before the mirror was perfect, and in bad nights, that part of it which presents the strange flocculent appearance described by Sir John Herschel is seen to be composed of stars, with the lowest power, 360. But Dr. Robinson's eye required 830 to bring out the smaller stars, amongst which these are scattered. Having seen them, and known the easiest parts, they were seen with the 3-feet and 500. Dr. Robinson has seen a recent notice in which this nebula is said to have been resolved by the observers of Harvard University, U. S., with a Munich achromatic of from 15 to 16 inches' aperture. He has often seen it with Mr. Cooper's of 13·5, a difference easily to be allowed for, but never saw any trace

of resolution. He does not in the least dispute the observation; for a precise knowledge of the place (which Dr. Nichol had mentioned) with a purer atmosphere and sharper eyes than his are sufficient to account for it; but he cannot refrain from remarking that the epithet "incomparable," which they apply to their telescope, would be less extravagant if—in addition to the two stars of the trapezium which were discovered by the telescopes of Dorpat and Kensington—they had seen the other two which the 6-feet showed at the first glance, after its polish was completed. Another interesting object is the planetary nebula, h. 464, situated in the splendid cluster, Messier, 46, and probably a part of it. It is a disc of small stars uniformly distributed and surrounded by the larger. Messier, 64, is a singular modification of the annular form seen obliquely. The opening seems black as ink, and at its margin is one of those interior clusters of bright stars so often noticed before. But the most remarkable nebular arrangement which this instrument has revealed is that where the stars are grouped in spirals. Lord Rosse described one of them (Messier 51) in the year 1845; and Dr. Robinson found four others, of which he exhibited drawings, h. 604 (seen by Herschel as a bi-central nebula), Messier, 99, in which the centre is a cluster of stars. Messier, 97, looks, with the finding eye-piece, like a figure of eight; but the higher powers show star spirals related to two centres, appearing like stars with dark spaces round them,—though probably high powers in a fine night would prove them to be clusters. Another fact deserves to be noted, from its bearing on Struve's *Etude d'Astronomie Stellaire*. In that admirable book, among other curious matters, he infers that the 18-inch telescope of Herschel penetrated into space only one-third of what was due to its optical power. He explains this by supposing the heavenly spaces imperfectly transparent. In computing the limit, however, he assumes that the Milky Way is in its greatest extent "unfathomable by the telescope." Dr. Robinson, however, chanced to observe it when it is deepest at 6·4, and is certain that its remotest stars were very far indeed within the limit of the 6-feet, and very much larger than those of the nebula of Orion.—*London Athenæum*.

THE PLANET NEPTUNE.—This newly-discovered planet has a diameter of 43,000 miles, consequently it is about two hundred times larger than the earth, and may be seen with a telescope of moderate power. The motion is retrograde at present, and its mean velocity of 12,000 miles an hour is six times slower than that of the earth. Being on the confines of the known system, and at the distance of 3,000 millions miles from the sun, it can only have the 1·1,300th part of the light and heat we receive from that body; but the deficiency of light, at least, may, in some measure, be supplied by moons, two of which have been discovered; besides, like Saturn, it has a ring, whose diameter is to that of the planet as three to two, and consequently 64,500 miles; the breadth of the ring is unknown.—*Fraser's Magazine for May*.

Glimpses of Books.

ANIMAL FIGHTING IN THE EAST.

THE combats of wild beasts were now to commence. We were conducted to a gallery, from which we looked down upon a narrow court, surrounded by walls and gratings. This was the arena on which the exhibition was to take place. Unluckily the place allotted for

spectators was, on account of the great number of English ladies present, so circumscribed, that we could find only a bad standing-room, and one moreover in which the glare and heat of the sun were most oppressive; however, the spectacle exhibited before our eyes in the depth of the battle-field, was of such a nature that all discomfort was soon forgotten.

We there beheld six powerful buffaloes, not of the tame breed, but strong and mighty beasts, the offspring of the *Arnees* of the mountains; measuring at least four feet and a half in height to the back, with huge and wide-arching horns, from three to four feet in length. There they stood, on their short, clumsy legs—snorting violently, and blowing through their distended nostrils, as if filled with forebodings of the approaching danger. What noble animals? what strength in those broad necks? Pity only that such intense stupidity should be marked in their eyes!

A clatter of sticks, and the roar of various wild beasts now resounded; to which the buffaloes replied by a hollow bellowing. Suddenly, on the opening of a side door, there rushed forth a strong and formidable tiger, measuring, I should say, from ten to eleven feet in length, from head to tail, and about four feet in height. Without deliberating long, he sprang, with one mighty bound, into the midst of the buffaloes, and darting unexpectedly between the redoubtable horns of one of the boldest champions, he seized him by the nape of the neck, with teeth and claws. The weight of the tiger nearly drew the buffalo to the ground: a most fearful contest ensued. Amid roars and groans, the furious victim dragged its fierce assailant round and round the arena, while the other buffaloes, striving to liberate their comrade, inflicted on the foe formidable wounds with their sharp and massive horns.

Deep silence reigned among the audience; each spectator watching, in breathless suspense, to mark the issue of the combat, and at the same time the fate of the few unhappy monkeys which, constrained, as if in mockery, to witness the bloody scene, looked down, at first, with indescribable terror, from the tops of their poles, but, when these were violently shaken by the horns of the buffaloes, fell down as if dead, and lay, extended at full length, with the utmost resignation expecting their end, without making the least attempt to avert it.

Two other tigers, somewhat inferior in size, were now, with great difficulty, driven into the battle-field, while the struggle still continued. Nothing, however, could induce them to make an attack in any quarter; they paced slowly round the scene, rubbing themselves, cat-like, against the wall as they moved, whenever the buffaloes,—which, without regarding them, were ever and anon goading their adversary with their horns,—approached nearer to them. But now the dread tiger received a thrust upon his ribs, which forced him to quit his hold; he fell with violence, and then slunk timidly into a corner. Thither he was pursued by the buffalo,—rendered furious by his mangled neck,—and was made the butt of many a vengeful blow and thrust, while he merely betrayed his pain by the hideous contortions of his mouth, not making the least movement in self-defence.

Fresh actors now appeared on the scene; two Himalaya bears of different species were, —though not without most arduous exertions,—forced into the fight, to the very point whither the tiger had retreated. Many a wound inflicted by sharp claws, and many a rude box on the ear, were now interchanged,

amid fierce growls and roars. Blood was streaming from the face of every combatant. While all were furiously engaged in one tremendous mêlée, the wounded buffalo, which meantime had been occupied with one of the half-dead monkeys, renewed his attack, drove them all together in a heap, and did not desist from his infuriated assault until the wound of an adversary's claws had torn a great part of the skin from off his muzzle.

A universal exhaustion now prevailed; the first tiger lay as if dead, save his horrible grimaces; the others, lame from their wounds, hobbled from one corner of the arena to the other; the bears too maintained a most peaceful tranquillity, so soon as they ceased to feel the sharp goading sticks of the keepers.

It was truly a savage and a horrid spectacle, but not the less entertaining for the ladies and gentlemen! however, only that unhappy buffalo lost its life, in consequence of its wounds; the tigers are all yet living, one only having had a rib broken. The Nabob keeps sixteen powerful tigers in his menagerie, all destined for this sort of spectacle.—*Hoffmeister's Ceylon*.

CHARACTER AND SUPERSTITIONS OF THE KAFFIRS.

THE Kaffirs have no idea of a future state, and many can hardly be taught to believe that there are countries beyond their own. Some have a crude idea that Europeans, particularly the English, live on the waters in ships. Even to their own chiefs, and people who have been in England, they will give no credence. A Kaffir believes only what he sees. Latterly, they have become more inquisitive, and ask questions—wondering “if the Queen of England is like other human beings!”

They are so exceedingly superstitious that the more cunning of their community take advantage of a weakness common to all, but possessed in a greater degree by some than by others. The system of “eating-up,” as it is called, arises from the prevalence of superstition, and may be thus described. A man who, from his knowledge of herbs and practice among the sick, is considered and denominated a doctor, entertains, perhaps, a spite against some individual. He hears that another is sick—if a chief, so much the better for his purpose—or perhaps he employs some nefarious means to injure the health of a man by whom he intends to be employed. The chief, then, falls sick; naturally, or by some foul means; meanwhile, the “doctor” has not been idle; he has carried to some hiding-place some herbs, stones, roots, bits of skin, or something of this kind, and has buried it in a nook. Soon after comes the summons for him. He goes. The patient is suffering, and the mode of questioning the sick man is singular enough. With a grave face and solemn air, the doctor begins his inquiries,—“Does his head ache?” “No.” “Has he a sore throat?” “No.” “Pain in the shoulders?” “No.” “In the chest?” “No.” “In the arms?” “No.” And soon, till the part affected is touched. Then the pain is acknowledged, and there is a long pause. No one ventures to speak, save the doctor and the patient. At last the former asks the invalid who has bewitched him? All disease is looked upon as the effect of magic, from their total ignorance of a Providence. The patient replies, he does not know. It is not improbable, indeed, he may be leagued with the doctor; or, if he be a chief, that he may have resolved on possessing himself of some poor dependent's cattle, and therefore bribes the doctor to assist him in his scheme. All the

inhabitants of the kraal are summoned. They come. Perhaps they expect a feast, unless they are aware of the chief's illness. The doctor moves through the assembly, examines the countenances of this man and that, retires, deliberates, returns, and at last points out the unfortunate man who has already been devoted to ruin. The victim protests his innocence. It is of no avail. The wise doctor can prove where he has hidden the charm which works the mischief. He goes to the nook where he himself has concealed it. The people follow. Wonderful!—he discovers it—brings it to the chief, who orders the victim to pay so many head of cattle, the tax imposed being always so heavy as to injure the unfortunate creature beyond redemption. Frequently he is condemned to death; and frightful cruelties are to this day practised on men and women accused of witchcraft, who, with their heads smeared with honey, are bound down on an ant-hill, and at their feet a blazing fire. Unable to move, they lie for days enduring this torture, till they are released or die. In the former case even, they are crippled for life. A very few weeks ago, a rain-maker, a character similar to that of the doctor, but whose business is curing the weather, caused a poor creature to be put to death; and, strange to say, though we had not had a drop of rain for nearly four months, and were very short of water, the torrents which fell deluged the country, and filled the tanks and rivers beyond what had been seen for a considerable time.—*Five Years in Kaffirland*.

TRAVELLING IN EGYPT.

“Egypt is not the country to go to for recreation of travel. It is too suggestive and too confounding to be met but in the spirit of study. One's powers of observation sink under the perpetual exercise of thought: and the lightest-hearted voyager, who sets forth from Cairo eager for new scenes and days of frolic, comes back an antique, a citizen of the world of six thousand years ago, kindred with the mummy. Nothing but large knowledge and sound habits of thought can save him from returning perplexed and borne down;—unless indeed it be ignorance and levity. A man who goes to shoot crocodiles, and flog Arabs, and eat ostrich's eggs, looks upon the monuments as so many strange old stone-heaps, and comes back bored to death with the Nile;” as we were told we should be. He turns back from Thebes, or from the First Cataract;—perhaps without having even seen the Cataract, when within a mile of it, as in a case I know; and he pays his crew to work night and day, to get back to Cairo as fast as possible. He may return gay and unworn: and so may the true philosopher, to whom no tidings of Man in any age came amiss; who has not prejudices to be painfully weaned from, and an imagination too strong to be overwhelmed by mystery, and the rush of a host of new ideas. But for all between these two extremes of levity and wisdom, a Nile voyage is as serious a labor as the mind and spirits can be involved in; a trial even to health and temper such as is little dreamed of on leaving home. The labor and care are well bestowed, however, for the thoughtful traveller can hardly fail of returning from Egypt a wiser, and therefore a better man.”—*Eastern Life, Present and Past*.

MR. LANE'S LABORS ON HIS ARABIC LEXICON.

It is well known to Oriental scholars that no good Arabic Lexicon exists; and perhaps none but men of learning can fully understand

how important it is to the world that it should have a good Arabic Lexicon; but it is evident enough to ordinary people that it is of consequence to our knowledge of history and ancient literature to have as good a key as can be found in the treasures of Arabic literature. There are, in the Mosques of Cairo, materials essential to the formation of a perfect Lexicon which can be had nowhere else; these MSS. are crumbling to pieces so fast that, if not used now, they will be lost for ever; and Mr. Lane is the only competent man who has access to these materials. He saw the importance of the object, felt the pressure of time, knew that he was the man for the work, and therefore devoted himself to it, in a generous negligence of his personal interests. He gave up a good literary income in London, the comforts of an English home, and the society of family and friends, and went to live at Cairo, working, to the injury of his health, at an unremunerative labor which he well knew the world would be slow to appreciate. And there he toils, day by day, with his sheikh, poring over the old MSS., which can scarcely be touched without falling to pieces. And there he must toil for two years more, till his work is finished. And what next? How will our Universities, and the Government, and the India Company, show that they understand the boon which Mr. Lane has conferred upon them? The common notion of welcoming a book is, taking a single copy; or five, or ten copies. Is this what will be done in the case of this rare book, which it is certain the public will never buy? One of the European powers understands the matter better than this; understands too that tokens of appreciation should be given so timely as that they may cheer the toils of the laborer, and assure him that he is not working in vain. The king of Prussia has been first, as usual, to give encouragement. Since my return I hear he has sent a commissioner to Egypt, by way of London, to make arrangements for the establishment and diffusion of the work. I rejoice at this; but I feel some shame that a foreign government should first have the honor—after the Duke of Northumberland—of welcoming and fostering the work of an English scholar.—*Miss Martineau's Eastern Life*.

Recent Publications.

Readings for the Young, from the Works of Sir Walter Scott. With Plates. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 344, 312. 1848.

Messrs Lea and Blanchard deserve the thanks of all the little people in the land, for these delightful volumes, which are as agreeable to read as they are attractive in appearance. We welcome and read a good book intended for children, with even more delight and cordiality than a volume of equal talent which addresses itself to those who have arrived at years of discretion; even if only of average merit, it disarms the critic, who, with the half-awakened feelings of the boy welling up in his heart, forgets to note any fault that does not absolutely disfigure. This book is, we believe, the first attempt that has been made to furnish select readings from the works of Sir Walter Scott. The suggestion was originally thrown out in the London Quarterly Review, about four years ago; but whether the publishers derived the hint therefrom or not, is of little consequence, though it is singular that it should be first acted upon in this country. The greater portion of Sir Walter's works have been laid under contribution for these volumes. The subjects are thus classified: Vol. I.—Tales of Chivalry and the Olden Time; Maxims, Observations, and Anecdotes; Poetry; Historical

and Romantic Narratives. Vol. II.—Historical and Romantic Narratives; Maxims, Anecdotes, &c.; Scottish Scenes, Characters, &c.; Poetry and Lyrical Pieces. It would, perhaps, be hardly fair to judge of its effect upon young folks by that which it had upon ourselves; the extracts are, possibly, long enough for the purpose, and carefully selected so as to stand alone without reference to the context. But older readers will only find enough to whet their appetites for the rest; and will be unable to resist the temptation of turning to some edition of the collected works, and renewing their acquaintance with Nicol Jarvie, Dandie Dinmont, and the Antiquary; with Rebecca, Jeanie Deans, and Rose Bradwardine.

The Arithmetical Table Book; or the Method of Teaching the Combinations of Figures by Sight. By Charles Davies, LL.D. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 18mo. pp. 72. 1848.

A useful little book, apparently well adapted to teach the art of making mental arithmetical calculations; the author's system is easily understood; and the successive steps are so gradual that the difficulties are conquered almost before they are felt. It is the first book of a course which carries the pupil progressively to the highest branches of arithmetic and mathematics.

Napoleon and the Marshals of the Empire. With sixteen steel portraits. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 348, 372. 1848.

MORE than thirty years have elapsed since the close of the series of wars arising out of the first French revolution; and before the world has got tired of reading and re-reading the historical narratives and biographical memoirs which have since then poured forth in one unceasing stream, another change has come upon the political aspect of Europe, a new era has dawned, a revolution of greater grandeur, and based on different principles, has filled the world with astonishment. In what direction does it point? Is military glory or social reform to be the rallying cry? If the latter, society will receive an impulse in advance that will be felt to the remotest verge of the civilized world; if the former, we can read the story of the future in the annals of the past, a summary of which may be found in the work above announced.

These two handsome volumes contain a sufficiently correct outline of the careers and characters of the illustrious marshals and their still more illustrious master. The biographies, or rather sketches, have been written by different hands; but the whole has been executed under the superintendence of an editor, whose province it has been to give them an air of unity. The estimates of character, even where little can be said in extenuation of faults, are perhaps somewhat too marked by lenity, and especially in the case of Napoleon himself; but, on the whole, as far as we have carried our comparisons, the salient points are preserved in their due proportion, and the details are narrated with no lack of spirit and energy. The following quotation from the Introductory Note will explain the plan of the book:—

"In the life of Napoleon, in this work, the early years of the emperor, and the circumstances of his rise to distinction, are traced with particular minuteness, because they have been the subjects of injurious misrepresentation. The Italian campaigns of 1796 and 1797, and the campaign of France in 1814, are detailed with great fulness, as being, upon the whole, the most extraordinary exhibition of his military genius and energy of character. The other campaigns—those, for example, of Marengo, Austerlitz, Jena, and Wagram—being episodes, as it were, in his political history, are thrown into the biography of the marshal who was most distinguished on the particular occasion. But each campaign is described in reference to the emperor as the centre of operations, and not in reference merely to the marshal concerned; for that would have produced a distorted and partial view. Though the learning and abilities of various writers have

been laid under contribution in the preparation of the work, it is hoped that the labors of the editor have been successful in preserving connexion and unity throughout."

The Marriage Offering; a Compilation of Prose and Poetry. Boston: Crosby & Nichols 18mo. pp. 207. 1848.

A VIEW of the marriage relation in its religious and sentimental aspect—making it, indeed, almost too good "for human nature's daily food." It contains pretty sentiments and ideas, and is neatly got up.

Foreign Literary Intelligence.

LORD ROSSE has accepted the Presidency of the Royal Society.

Literary Prizes.—"The donation of 10,000 francs, by M. Pillet-Will in 1842, to the Academy of Sciences at Turin, for four prizes for scientific works, not having been distributed, neither of the works sent in meriting a prize, the primitive conditions have been modified by the Academy, in concert with the donor, and a new call has been made for 21st December, 1849, in the hope that then the prizes may be awarded. The new proposals are:—a prize of 2,500 francs for each of the following four works—Introductions to the Study of Physics; of Chemistry; of Mechanics; and of Astronomy. They are to be in the form of elementary treatises; are to make known, abridged, the history and philosophy of the sciences, and the methods adopted to arrive at the conclusions they set forth; and are to serve for the instruction of the masses, and to prepare for a deeper study of the Sciences. The works sent in competition must be unpublished, and legibly written in Italian or French. The contest is open to the Savans of all countries."—*London Lit. Gaz.*

We copy the following advertisement from the Literary Gazette, as it announces a curious and interesting fact, and one, we believe, that has no parallel in the history of newspapers:—

"The London Gazette, from the first No. in the year 1665, to the end of 1838, perfect, with the Index complete, to be disposed of, being the only authentic public record of all our Battles by Sea and Land; all Appointments, Promotions, interesting accounts of the Great Fire of London in 1666; very curious Foreign News, &c. This is the only perfect set in existence; the whole are bound, and all the early volumes are in fine preservation. Apply to Mr. Deacon, Newspaper Agent, 21, Walbrook, London."

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THE MODERN ARTIST ; THE CAUSE OF HIS MEDIOCRITY.—ENGLISH GAIETY AND ENGLISH GLOOM.—SCENES IN LONDON, No. 3, THE MIGRATION.—THE ROYAL ACADEMY EXHIBITION.—REVIEWS OF HOWARD'S LECTURES ON PAINTING, LORD HERVEY'S MEMOIRS, FORSTER'S LIFE OF GOLDSMITH, &c., &c.—WITH A COMPLETE JOURNAL OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

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